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ABSTRACT

All planning techniques and models concern themselves with four basic tasks: (1) the determination of the objectives or purpose of the activity, (2) the development of programs likely to attain the objectives, (3) the organization of experiences into a coherent, meaningful unit, and (4) the evaluation of the extent to which programs meet the objectives. Twelve planning models, most of which are educational planning models, are presented and compared in this document. Also included are planning models used in county extension services and in community political organization. (Hard copy may be of poor quality because of marginal legibility of original.) (RA)

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COMPARATIVE METHODS

OF

PROGRAM PLANNING

by

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Presented to the

Seminar on Curriculum

(HED 744)

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PROGRAM OR CURRICULUM?

One of the most elusive concepts in education is that which refers to curriculum or program. In terms of specificity or commonality we soon discover that the relative meaning of program and/or curriculum depends upon who is using the terms; that is to say, any specific understanding depends for its meaning upon who perceives or describes it.

An administrator's view of a program may not in fact be for more than one student. What functions as a program for any individual may be neither perceivable nor intelligible to any other individual; furthermore, it may not even be discoverable in institutional or group offerings. Jensen (14, p. 242) suggests that there are three possible uses of the terms in question. Some propose that programs are used to make a curriculum; some argue that a curriculum may be part of a program; and, others feel free to interchange the terms. In some areas of education each is relatively easy to do. For example, throughout the whole of adult education literature these two words are mixed, and no easily discernible distinction is regularly made between them, or between program and course, or program and study plan, to mention only a few.

Knowles (16, p. 65) suggests that "program" is commonly

used to describe the type of activities developed by a voluntary group or association for its clientele. In contrast, formal educational institutions call their programs the curriculum. Often, the distinction rests on whether or not credit is offered. Generally, the curriculum is used to denote formal credit courses whereas program indicates a more informal, non-credit type of activity. In its usage, Knowles suggests that program is a more flexible term than curriculum. Often, the distinction that favors "curriculum" is based on the fact that it implies education for children or adolescents while "program" implies education for adults or many post-secondary educational activities in general.

Obviously, the word program is put to many uses. Historically, the chief difference appears to rest on the kinds of things that I just mentioned. That is, that type of activity which is of an educational nature organized for clientele such as civic and service clubs, women's clubs, professional associations, libraries, churches, unions, etc. without regard to credit toward a degree or diploma is called a program. The focus of this type of activity is on developing attitudes, competency in particular skills, or certain areas of knowledge for an organizational or individual purpose. The emphasis of this type of program is flexibility in program content so as to meet the needs and interests of the clientele. In this regard, the clientele may serve as the agent, target, or means of change.

At the other end of the educational continuum are the credit courses offered by elementary, secondary, and collegiate institutions which may lead to a diploma, degree, or certificate. Such offerings and the environment in which they are offered are historically referred to as curriculums. Other distinctions are often based on depth or extent; that is, "program" may imply a greater range of educational activities which in turn require greater resources.

It is my contention that this systematic lack of usage implies little or no real difference in these terms for education in today's learning society. Whether one bases his choice of terminology on age, level of instruction, credit or non-credit, etc. is really not of importance. To fragmentize or superficially differentiate between "program" and "curriculum" for historical reasons is also to not recognize an educational spectrum, a continuum of educational activity with many more notions of similarity rather than difference. Only when differentiation is based on empirical or systematic reasoning could we advance this argument. And until such time that the literature reflects a rationality for its elusive use of "curriculum" and "program", I accept an interchange of these terms with exceptions being noted by and for those who subscribe to historical or emotional differentiations.

Thus, program and curriculum have many elements in common. Program planning and curriculum development are comparable terms for program development and curriculum planning. And, as before,

the process associated with planning or development has many features which are commonly applied to programs and/or curriculums. For purposes of further analysis, we can seek factors that are in common with "program" and "curriculum" for those who wish to do so.

Curriculum

The curriculum is commonly defined as all the experiences that a learner has under the guidance of the school (4, 9, 10). It is a complex of "planned" or controlled conditions under which students learn new behavior; modify, maintain, or eliminate present behavior. Hovet (4) mentions some factors that affect student behavior: the program of studies, the extracurriculum, school staff, other students, rules and decisions, school routine, discipline, grading, eligibility, instructional supplies and equipment, buildings and grounds, the community, public opinion, the state of the nation, and many others, any of which can greatly affect curricular changes.

Objectives

Curriculum theory since 1900 has been greatly concerned with the delineation and clarification of objectives (21, 22, 23). Some believed that education should function for self-preservation, procuring the necessities of life, rearing one's children, performing one's political and social obligations, and advancing one's personal culture. The Greeks at one time sought to train superior

young man to fight, philosophize, and be gentlemen. However, the later development of educational psychology brought about a scientific aspect in determining objectives. The procedure was basically to categorize human behavior into a few important segments, and then to break the categories into specific objectives. Thus, specific objectives were obtained through the analysis of human activity, and these objectives were then used to select and justify the teaching and learning of specific items.

About 1925, the statements of objectives began to be selected on the basis of needs of students more than on the analysis of life activities. Objectives began to relate to the needs and wants of the learner. This division in the preparation of objectives created a split between the "essentialists" and the "progressives." Essentialists could not accept the idea that the interests and needs of students could be relied upon to any great extent in determining what the teacher should teach (19). They believed that the emphasis should be upon knowledge, attitudes, and skills. Progressives believed that the mastery of subject matter for which there was no immediate use or understanding would not only fail to stimulate students but also discourage them (23).

Between 1940 and 1950, a strong movement advocated what has been called student-teacher planning in which goals are selected in cooperation among students, teachers, parents, and community leaders. In 1944, the Educational Policies Commission outlined four major objectives of education: the development of the learner;

the improvement of home, family, and community life; fulfillment of economic needs; and performance of civic and social duties (20).

Since 1950, attempts have been made to state objectives in behavioral terms in such a way as to provide for the subsequent evaluation of the curriculum.

Organization of the Curriculum

Curriculums can be classified broadly as: (a) Subject-matter curriculums, including separate subjects, correlated subjects, and broad fields; and (b) Developmental-activity curriculums. The distinguishing characteristic of subject-matter curriculums is their preponderant emphasis on facts and skills--on subject matter to be learned. The separate-subject curriculum provides a logical rather than psychological organization, and there is an assumption that all students will or could learn from contact with the same sources at the same rate. The trend in recent years has been from separate-subject curriculums to correlation, integration, broad fields, and finally, to core and other developmental-activity curriculums (8, 11).

Curriculum Units

A unit is an organization of activities around a purpose. When a unit is used with a subject-matter curriculum, it is usually labeled as a subject-matter unit. When units are used with a developmental-activity curriculum, the units must be, by definition, experience units. An experience may be defined as a

cluster of educational experiences, organized through student-teacher planning, placed within the functioning framework of the student's reaction to his social and physical environment (2).

Curriculum Planning

Traditionally, the main directions in curriculum development were determined by textbook authors and by administrators. The curriculum resources were the textbook and the teacher. In the early history of education, the curriculum was a social and intellectual reservoir from which specific items could be "tapped" for our youth. At present, the trend is definitely toward flexibility, where the planning is done in terms of the learner's needs, abilities, and interests as set against the background of the needs of society, the relative usefulness of various knowledges and skills, and the logical and psychological nature of learning.

Educators often acknowledge the close relationship between the direction taken by society and the basic orientation of their school systems. Lay people do not see this relationship so readily or easily. They tend to regard schools as existing in the periphery of the real issues in life. This low opinion is evidenced by the paucity of scholarly studies concerning the role played by our schools and their impact on the great movements of the past three centuries (3).

The Broad Ramifications of Curriculum

The consideration of curriculum leads into many areas. We have not mentioned such influences as individual differences, group processes, adolescent growth and development, social structure

and so forth. Research on teacher attitudes indicates that the attitudes or reactions of teachers toward students greatly affect the social-emotional atmosphere or "climate" of the classroom (5). These and other influences attest to the fact that changes are occurring more rapidly than ever before in curricular matters.

Colleges and Universities - Programs

The term "educational program" normally designates both the class or seminar experiences and the informal means, such as counseling, student activity programs, and the general community life, by which each institution attempts to fulfill its own mission. However, due to pluralism in American higher education, it is extraordinarily difficult to identify trends or patterns in their programs. One certainty is that a new process is emerging by which these institutions set their goals and aims. Objectives are being written with a greater degree of clarity and with greater degree of participation from within and without the collegiate setting.

Today it is customary to distinguish or at least recognize objectives that are educational, non-educational, instructional, behavioral, institutional, formal, informal, individual, group, and so forth. Although the literature suggests a need for more precise educational objectives, few studies have assessed the values of these formulations or of the methods used in developing them.

Curriculum

As the chief planned means for achieving college goals, the curriculum occupies a central position in every institution. Yet as Cook and others (4) report, relatively little research has been done on curriculum problems at any educational level, and the studies made tend to be "piecemeal, specialized, repetitive and prosaic--lacking in pertinence and philosophic background." Though many colleges take pride in their distinctive programs, seldom do they put the underlying ideas or rationale to any empirical test. Hardly a beginning has been made toward developing major constructs and theories regarding the curriculum (1, 12).

Earnest (6), and Hofstadter and Hardy (13) show that the American college during its first 250 years provided instruction of mainly secondary-school grade, focused on character development and the more rote types of learning, not on encouraging independent thought--an aim that is still not well implemented.

Most of the professional accrediting groups still employ criteria devoid of any research basis, even though most identify the appraisal of the curriculum as their primary reason for existence. Future trends will require more institutional self-study appraisals with the emphasis shifting from status to growth. Indeed, such a movement has already taken some of the glamour away from the "big name" schools and given it to the two-year and state college movement which is definitely showing signs of radical improvement.

While a faculty may have prime responsibility for a curriculum, few seem to be effectively organized for this task, which may explain why the curriculum is often shaped more by internal pressures and external influences than by basic educational considerations.

Most actions pertaining to the curriculum are initiated as departmental proposals for modifications, additions, or deletions in course offerings and seldom are rejected by the "faculty" (7). The department thus functions as a "gate keeper" in curricular expansion, rarely undertaking any systematic review of its program or intent. Studies of the operations of college curriculum committees and of general faculty meetings also show that little time is normally given at the all-college level, to broad curriculum planning.

Leadership in improving the curriculum, which is usually entrusted to the academic deans, apparently receives limited attention in most colleges. Likewise, relatively few presidents and boards seem to regard their budget-planning, staff policies, and building projections as primary means of improving the quality of the educational program (15, pp. 165-185). Alexander (12, pp. 100-109), Mayhew (17), and McGrath (18) observe that the quality of administrative and supervisory leadership has often been a crucial factor in improving the curriculum.

As increasing numbers of students go to college, it becomes important that a collegiate curriculum relate to the student's prior

background. Articulation responsibilities are very much the joint responsibility of both the secondary and higher education institutions. Unfortunately, each segment within American education seems to stand somewhat removed and independent of the others. The emergent community colleges are breaking down such barriers due to their enormous growth and intermediate position between the high schools and colleges.

Only an occasional faculty today defines its expectations in terms of outcomes, not credit hours or specific courses, and thus encourages students to use a variety of means in attaining them. Nonetheless, one of today's most pressing issues is relevency in curriculum and in the near future we hope to have empirical results to help us interpret some of the current "innovations" in higher education. Yet, at this point, conclusive evidence is scarce or at the most, highly conjectural.

PROGRAM AND CURRICULUM: A GENERIC APPROACH

Up to now, I have suggested that differentiation between curriculum and program is usually unnecessary since the argument tends to cloud issues rather than clarify them. The preceding discussion, while making use of both "program" and "curriculum", makes no attempt to distinguish between them. The main treatise as presented here is that program planning (and curriculum development) is a process that basically involves activity and change. Within an educational context the process is usually associated

with teaching, the activity with learning (internal to the learner), and the change exemplified as behavioral change which is observed in the learner. In other words, the traditional concept of program planning has heretofore been maximized in formal educational systems as well as on the more informal adult and continuing education levels. But it need not be so limited. My purpose from this point onward is to demonstrate that various program models exist which, while including educational ventures, are also applicable to any situation in which a process is utilized to produce activity which in turn produces desired change. Thus, it is possible to utilize the concept of program planning in ways which go far beyond mere curricular revision. That is, we could anticipate our theories applying to social change, group change, welfare reform, community development, labor reform, campus reform, political reform, urban renewal, model cities programs, ghetto reform, inner-city renewal, and so forth.

Of the models presented here, two merit special attention. The first, from Ralph W. Tyler, is considered to be the most basic and appropriate to curricular reform. While it represents a traditional method intended for elementary and secondary levels, it is quite appropriate with some modification to be used at collegiate levels. Furthermore, it is of interest to detect its theme as it emerges in some shape or form in most other program

planning models. At the other end of the continuum we have Saul Alinsky's plan for radical organization in order to effect change. Modifications of this theme have already been witnessed on college campuses.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Program planning and curriculum development (or program development and curriculum planning) appear to have more elements in common than differences by which they could logically and systemmatically be differentiated. Hence, I have generally allowed for the interchange of these "labels." Two notions which are common to the concept of planning and development are "activity" and "change." Whether these ideas apply to education or not is immaterial. At best, we might allow that activity and change relate to either educational situations or non-educational situations. Both cases employ similar tactics and strategies to employ "activity" to produce "change."

All "educational" planning techniques seem to relate to four fundamental questions as asked by Tyler:

1. What educational purposes should be sought?
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

Non-educational planning can employ the same rationale and ask these questions with the option of deleting the word "educational." I suggest this option because in reality the word "educational" may relate to other than the classic-traditional formalized concept that we often employ.

Tyler and Mayhew present traditional concepts in curriculum development. Houle plans around the interest of the learner. Raudabaugh blends Tyler's principles with sociology. His theory of planning focuses on group change and learner involvement. Likewise, Beal suggests a sociological group approach to effect change. He encourages systematic organization as a method of producing change for, by, or to sub-cultures within the context of a larger system. VandeBerg stresses proper administrative and program support for his methods. He seeks legitimation, support, and defense as a means of organizing before seeking change. His plan is extremely popular because of its empirical foundation and record of success. Finally, Saul Alinsky has centered chiefly on the organization factor as a radical means of achieving a power base from which a group could achieve its goals.

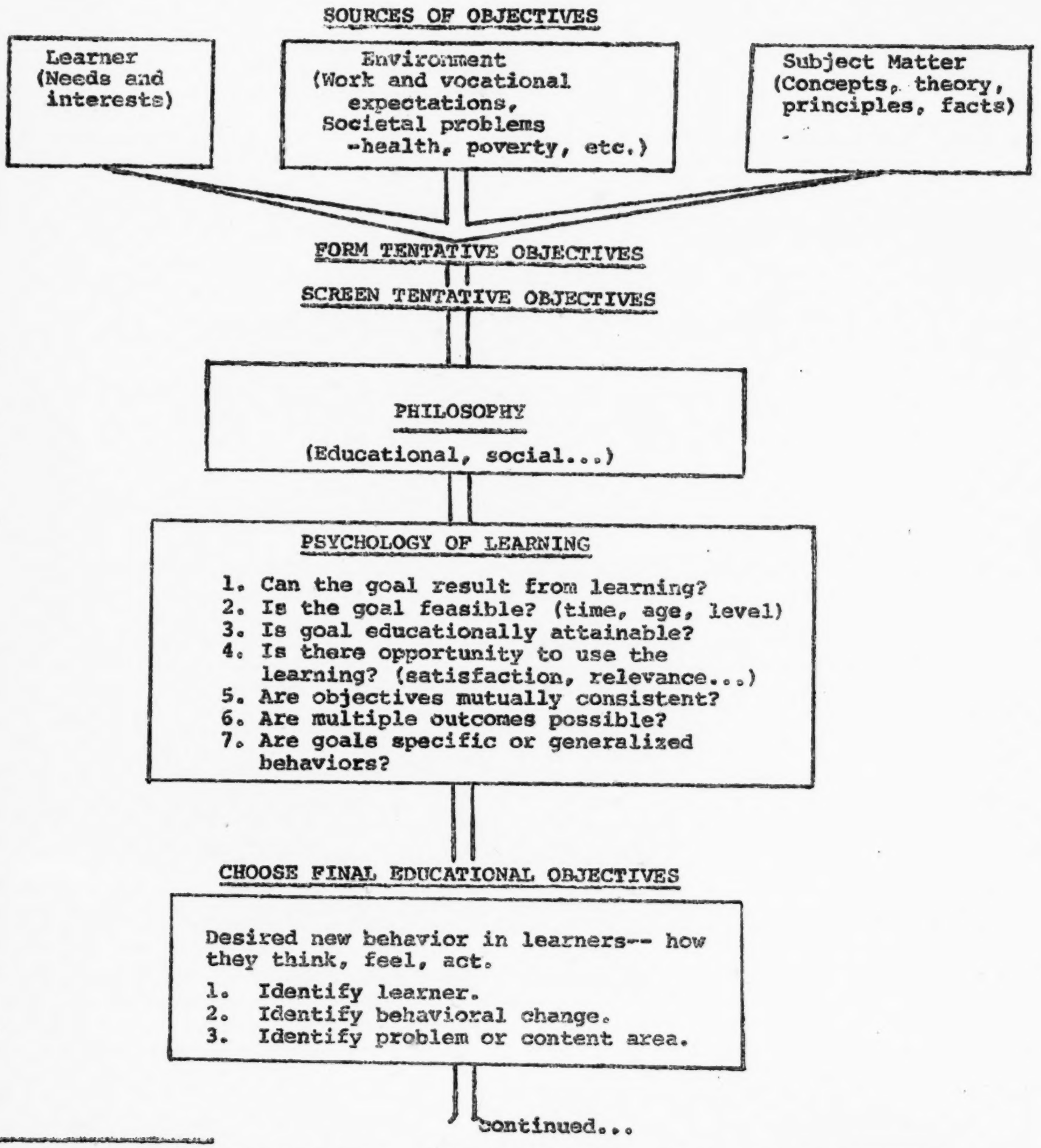
While some planning is obviously more suited to educational change, some is not. The concept of program planning is generic and may be applied to any plan of activity that tries to bring about desired change whether it is social, political, religious, economic, scientific, educational, personal, and so forth. By presenting a variety of models, including my own, I hope to have

expanded prior conepts of program planning and provided information by which one can make a comparative analysis.

* * * * * * * * *

TYLER MODEL

CURRICULUM (PROGRAM) DEVELOPMENT*


SOURCES OF OBJECTIVES
Learner (Needs and interests)
Environment (Work and vocational expectations, Societal problems -health, poverty, etc.)
Subject Matter (Concepts, theory, principles, facts)
FORM TENTATIVE OBJECTIVES
SCREEN TENTATIVE OBJECTIVES
PHILOSOPHY
(Educational, social...)
PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING
1. Can the goal result from learning?
2. Is the goal feasible? (time, age, level)
3. Is goal educationally attainable?
4. Is there opportunity to use the learning? (satisfaction, relevance...)
5. Are objectives mutually consistent?
6. Are multiple outcomes possible?
7. Are goals specific or generalized behaviors?
CHOOSE FINAL EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES
Desired new behavior in learners-- how they think, feel, act.
1. Identify learner.
2. Identify behavioral change.
3. Identify problem or content area.

continued...

* Source: Ralph Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, 1957, pp.1-83.

SELECT LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Learning takes place through the experiences the learner has.

Principles in selecting learning experiences

1. Experience will evoke the desired behavior
2. Experiences that give student practice.
3. Deal with kind of content implied.
4. Student obtains satisfaction.
5. Possible for student to achieve.
6. Many to 1; 1 to many (experiences to outcomes)

Objectives of learning experiences

1. Skill in relating ideas (thinking)
2. Acquire information (concepts, principles,.
3. Develop social attitudes (desirable).
4. Develop interests (through satisfaction).

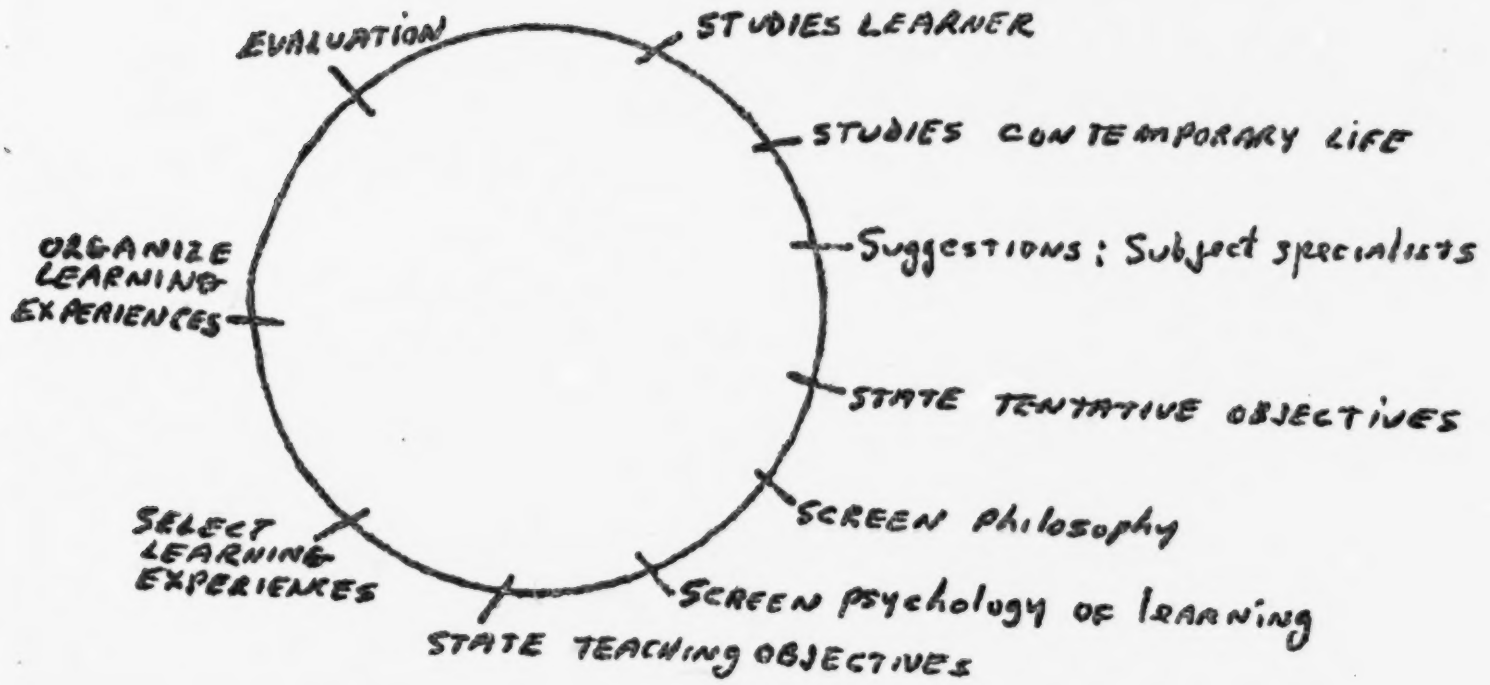
ORGANIZE LEARNING EXPERIENCES

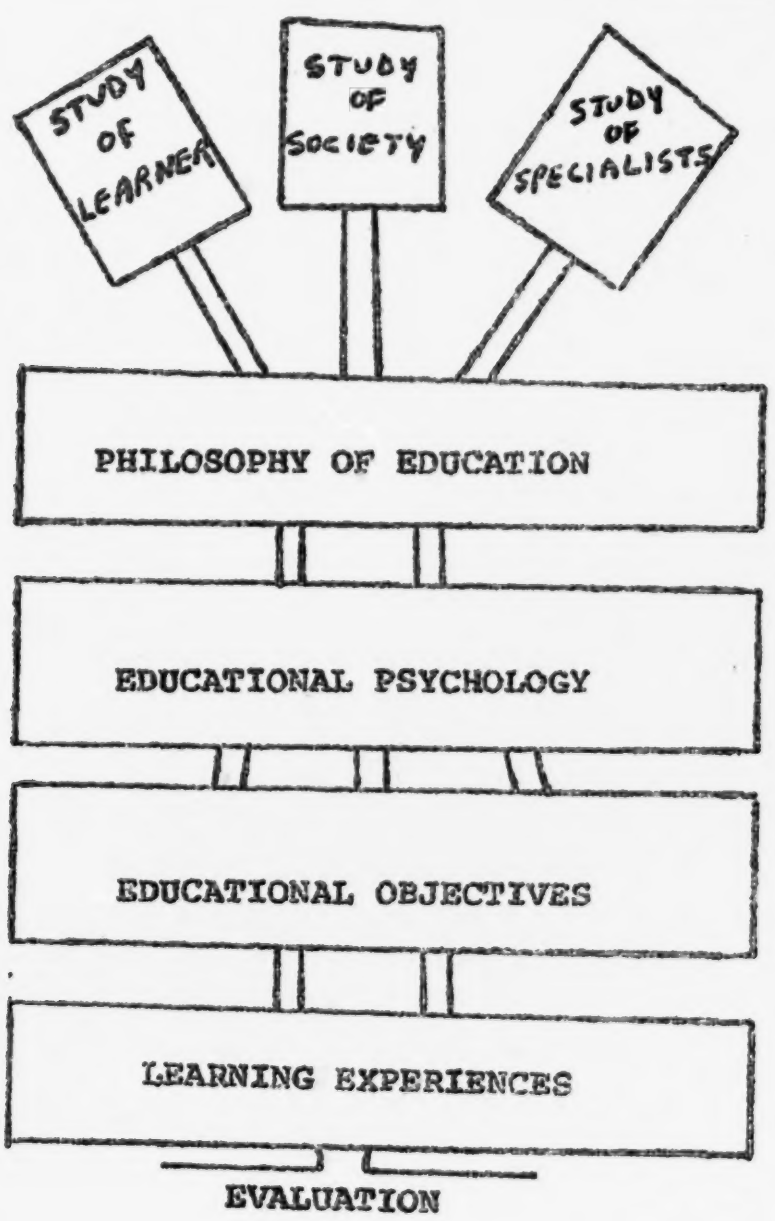
Criteria for Org.	Elements to Org.	Organizing Principles	Organizing Structure
continuity sequence (goes beyond) integration (from one area to another).	concepts values skills	1. Broaden and deepen 2. Chronological 3. Specific-general 4. Real to abstract 5. Simple to complex	1. Lesson-Unit-Topic 2. Specific courses 3. Broad fields 4. Core curriculum 5. Undifferentiated

EVALUATE

Behavior Change	Obtain and Organize Evidence	Use of Results
1. Beginning 2. Several appraisals 3. End 4. Follow up	Define behavioral objectives Identify situations where learners can express behavior Select or devise methods to collect evidence-valid -objective reliable Determine sample; collect data Summarize and organize data	Estimate change Suggest reasons for strengths and weaknesses Clarify objectives Identify points needing attention Provides information to the public

OTHER VERSIONS OF THE TYLER MODEL *



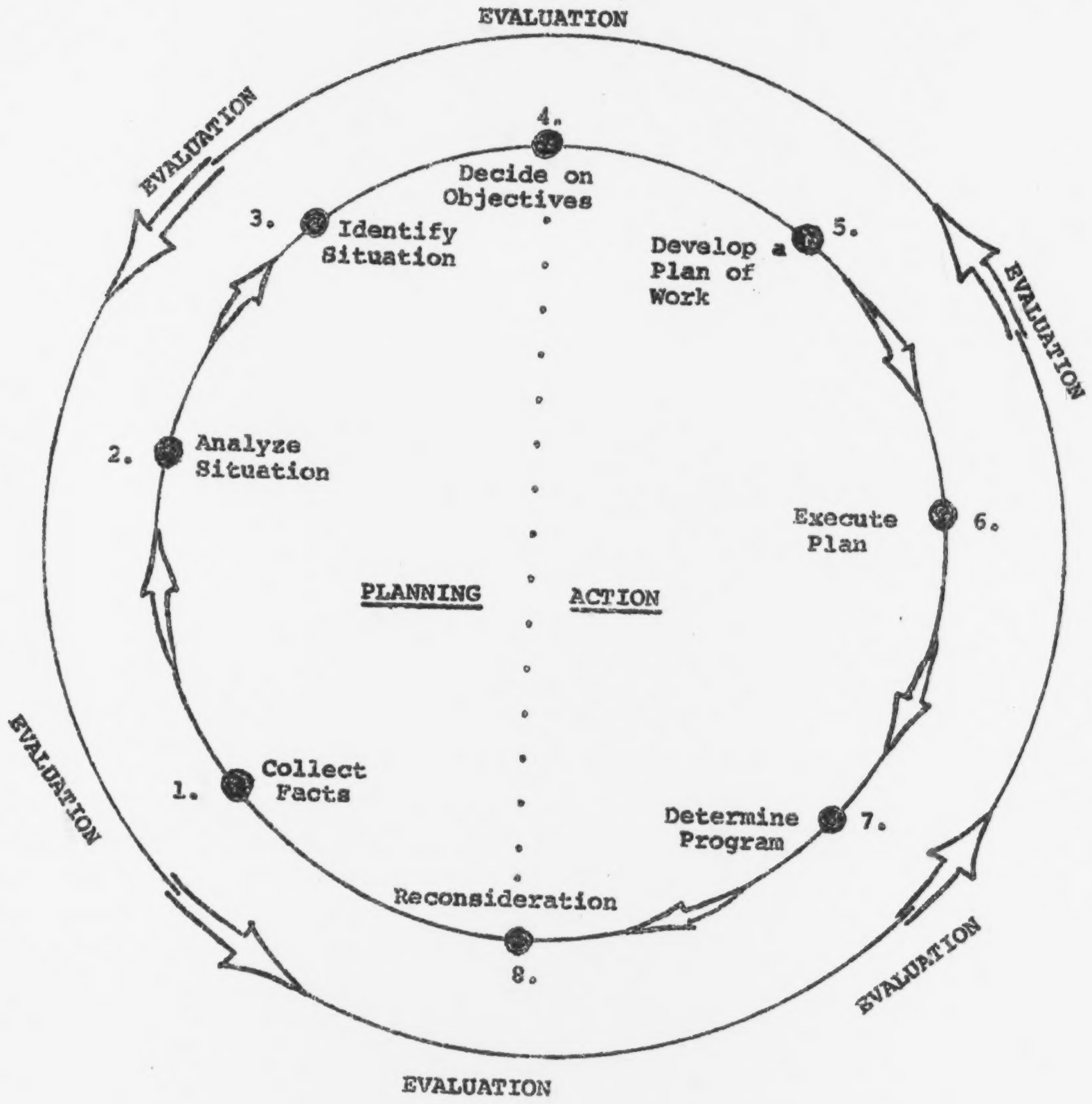


For Consideration:

1. Does the Tyler Model make use of administrative supports?..program supports?
2. Does it allow for public understanding?
3. Does it involve the learner?

* Adapted from class notes, ATE 613, Harlan Copeland, Syracuse University, 1969.

FEDERAL EXTENSION SERVICE MODEL



Adapted from: Sanders, H. C. (ed.), The Cooperative Extension Service. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966.

MAYHEW MODEL (Social Science)*

CONCEPTUALIZATION FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE CURRICULUM

Behavioral Area (Skills, traits, attitudes . . .)	History	Political Science	Sociology	Economy	Anthropology	Geography	Psychology
1. Observation, classification and Measurement							
2. Analysis & Synthesis							
3. Questions & Answers							
4. Objectivity							
5. Skepticism							
6. Evaluation							
7. Interpretation							
8. Evidence							
9. Historical Method							
10. Geographical Approach							
11. Causation							
12. Dignity of Man							
13. Loyalty							
14. Freedom & Equality							
15. Other							

* Source: Louis B. Mayhew, The Collegiate Curriculum: An Approach to Analysis, SREB Research Monograph No. 11, ERIC, ED 014790, p. 34, 1966.

MAYHEW MODEL*

A two-way chart is suggested to be a useful technique for curricular development. One dimension shows the substantive areas which are to be included in the curriculum. The other dimension on the chart shows the skills, traits, and attitudes, etc. which are considered necessary if one is to use substantive materials well. By plotting and describing a curriculum in such a form, we can readily expose areas where imbalances and omissions occur. And, it is possible to list the most important curricular matters which should be offered.

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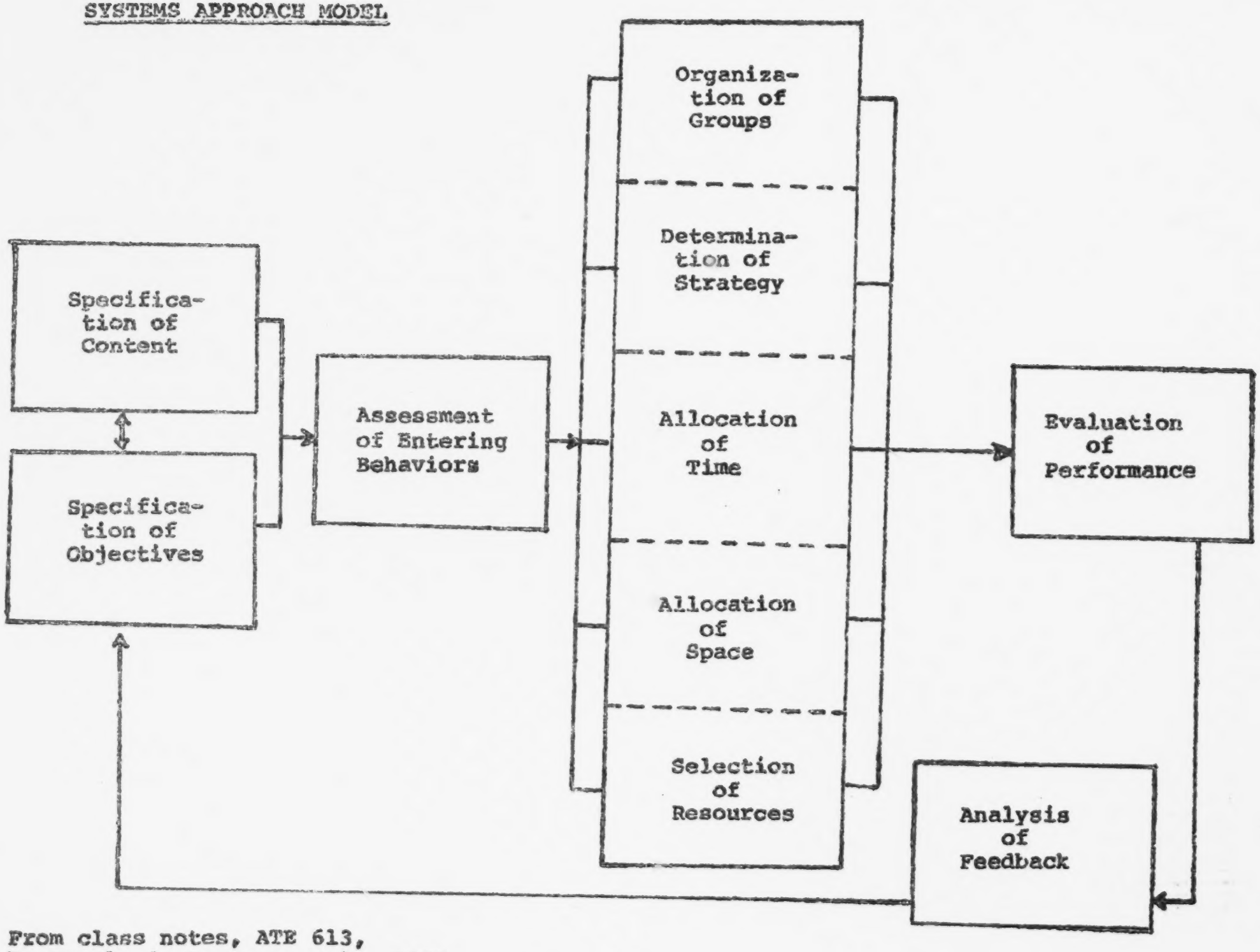
*For a better systematic treatment of this concept, see Tyler's two-dimensional chart which relates behavioral aspects of objectives to content aspects of objectives. Ralph W. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, (Originally published 1949), University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, 1969, p. 50.

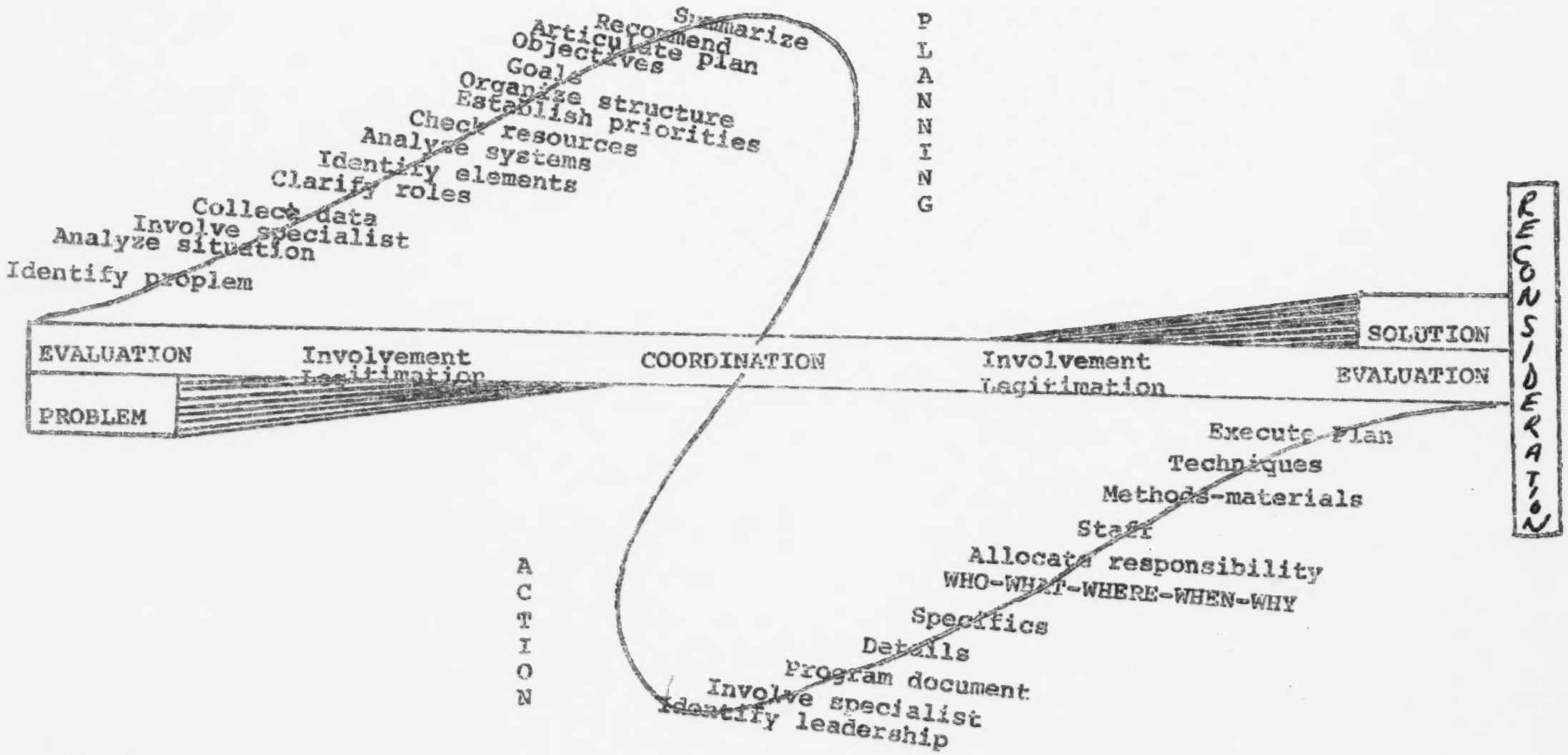
Also, for a related technique that lists 21 limiting principles which in turn define percentages of general studies, maximum credits in major-minor, limits for specialization, limits for departmental offerings, electives, exceptions, etc., see Dressel's mathematical model for collegiate curriculum. Paul L. Dressel, The Undergraduate Curriculum in Higher Education, New York, The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1963, pp. 83-85.

SYSTEMS APPROACH MODEL *



* From class notes, ATE 613,
H. Copeland, Syracuse Univ.,1969.

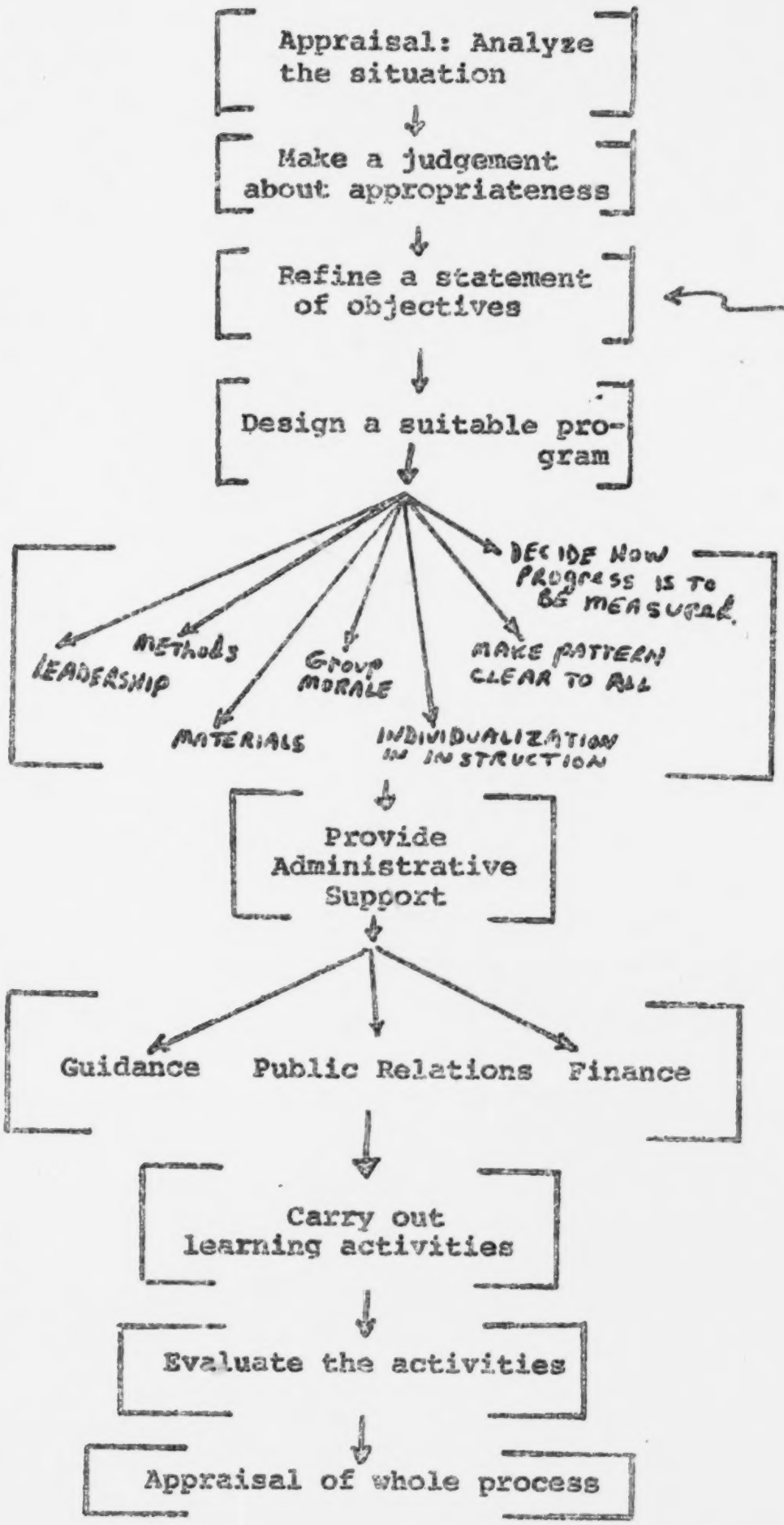
MY MODEL (PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT)



NOTES:

1. Listed items are tentative, pending specific problem.
2. Model is cyclic; planning and action may overlap.
3. Evaluation, involvement, and legitimation may occur at any and all points, pending nature of problem.
4. The model aims to provide a tentative solution to a specific problem; reconsideration is necessary.
5. Not all items apply to every program; curricular revision would differ from social reform.
6. Specialists may be involved at any point; they may initiate the process; they may be eliminated from it.

HOULE MODEL *



Uses philosophy & INFORMATION FROM LEARNER, DISCIPLINE & SOCIETY. (BROAD & SPECIFIC)

Notes

- This model centers AROUND people's INTERESTS.
- LACKS clientele INVOLVEMENT
- SOME ARGUE THAT PROFESSIONALS should have the skill to "psych" OUT INTERESTS ; i.e., do NOT ABDICATE ROLL TO OTHERS.
- Individuals CAN TEACH themselves (SELF-EDUCATION)
- Self-directed learners rely greatly ON resource people.

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* Adapted from class notes, ATE 613, Harlan Copeland, Syracuse University, 1969.

HOULE MODEL

CLASSIFICATION OF PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT SITUATIONS*

A. Individual

1. A person undertakes a program of education for himself. Examples:

   A man decides to broaden his knowledge of music by reading about it, systematically listening to it, and attending courses in it.

   A worker in adult education decides to undertake a program of professional advancement.

2. A group or a person undertakes a program designed to educate another individual. Examples:

   A reader's advisor in a library works out a set of readings for a patron.

   A supervisor attempts to assist one of his staff to do a better job.

   A county agent works with a farmer to help him improve his operation of his farm.

B. Group

3. A group (with or without a continuing leader) undertakes a program of education for itself. Examples:

   A club develops its program for the year.

   A group of congenial people decide to work together on a subject of common interest.

4. A teacher (who is usually himself a specialist in the learning to be conveyed) undertakes a program of education for, and often with, a group. Examples:

   A literacy teacher undertakes a program for a particular group.

   A home demonstration agent works with a group of homemakers to develop a program for the year.

   The administrator or supervisor works with his staff on a program of professional education.

---

*Source: Cyril O. Houle, unpublished class notes, University of Chicago.

5. A small group undertakes an educational activity for a larger group of which the small group is a part. Examples:

A committee works out the program for a professional conference or convention.

The executive committee of a local union develops a group of educational activities revolving around the program and need of the union.

6. The representatives of a number of groups or associations work together to improve their total program of service. Examples:

The presidents of a number of voluntary associations in a state form a council to identify and deal with common problems.

The delegates of all the clubs in a settlement house meet together to develop a common program.

C. Institutional

7. An institution is created. Examples:

A businessman starts a new private correspondence school.

A foundation is created for the development of a nation-wide program of discussion groups.

8. An institution undertakes a fundamental program of improvement of its present services. Examples:

A correspondence instruction staff determines to develop and carry out a more effective program of adult education for its constituency.

An evening college staff determines to revise its program of offerings.

9. An institution undertakes a new program of service. Examples:

A museum director develops a program built around a new educational objective.

A national foundation works out a new course to be widely disseminated throughout the country.

The minister and board of a church undertake a program of adult classes and discussion groups.

10. A group of institutions work together to improve their total program of service. Examples:

The directors of evening colleges within a given area develop a continuing conference to consult together on common problems.

The heads of agencies of adult education in a city try to identify the common needs on which they should be working.

D. Mass

11. An individual, group, or institution undertakes a program for a mass audience. Examples:

A professor presents a course by television.

A panel discussion is developed for a radio program.

A publisher issues a set of books on popular themes.

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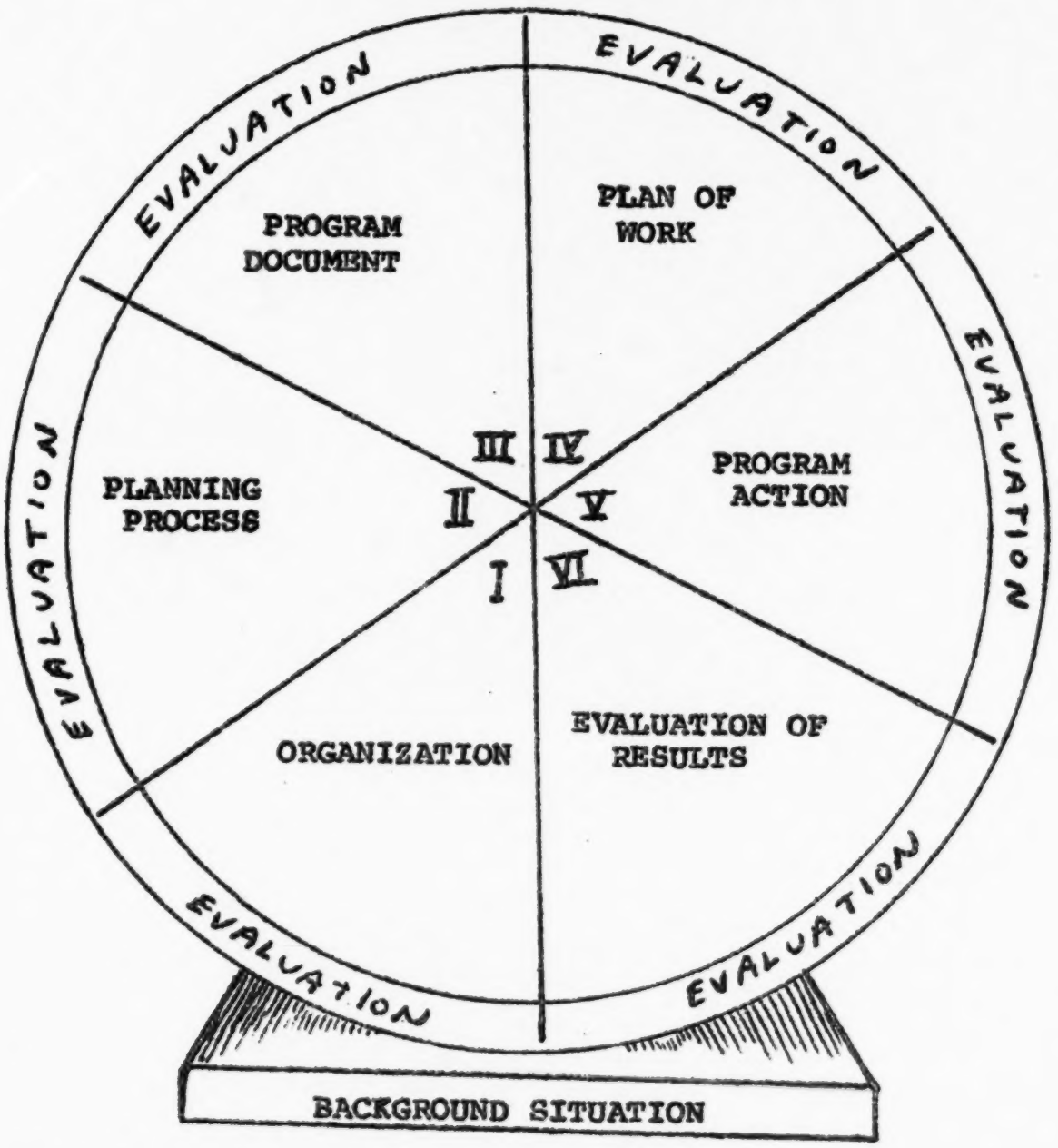
RAUDABAUGH MODEL



NOTES:

Step 1. Organization. Determine who's who and what's what; analyze social organizations; who and what is relevant? Seek heavy involvement; organize a structure that will handle coordination and priorities. This is an on-going process, not one-time study.

Step 2. Process for Program Planning. Problem areas are identified, sub-committees are formed. The real planning occurs here (data, analysis, objectives, goals . . .)

Step 3. Writing a Document. Describes local situation with statements of needs and interests, people's long and short term educational objectives; coordination with other groups.

Step 4. Plan of Work. Sometimes a legal requirement (annual report). Situational statement of problem, statement of specific objectives, major activities, events, methods, calendar, etc. Identifies leadership and evaluation techniques (kind and when).

Step 5. Action. Train leaders, coordinate activities, follow calendar. Suggests a variety of techniques, methods, and materials as they relate to specific subject matter. Responsibilities are shared.

Step 6. Evaluation of Results. Evaluate accomplishments of program; steps to be taken; reporting and interpretation.

In general:

The Raudabaugh model needs time and expertise to function. It is a group approach that has strong committee emphasis and much involvement. While the model was basically developed for extension work, it can be modified to other situations. Being a sociologist, Raudabaugh has attempted to merge Tyler's philosophy with sociology. One problem is that people often lack skills for group work. Furthermore, it is often difficult to use a specialist in such cases and, then, sometimes only in an advisory capacity.

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VandeBerg Model*

DESIRABLE CONDITIONS FOR EFFECTIVE PROGRAM PLANNING

Condition 1. All Members of the county staff have a common understanding of the planning process.

Condition 2. All Members of the county staff have common agreement on objectives, procedures and responsibilities in planning.

Condition 3. There is an overall design for committee functioning.

Condition 4. There is pre-planning by agents at each step in the process.

Condition 5. Members of the county agricultural committee understand and approve the planning process and its purposes.

Condition 6. Members of the county agricultural committee are involved very early in the planning process.

Condition 7. Favorable attitudes are developed towards the Committee's activities by county representatives of related agencies.

Condition 8. Information and suggestions from county representatives of related agencies are involved in the planning process.

Condition 9. There is intensive involvement in the planning process of county staff, local people and resource people.

Condition 10. The Committee Members are able to capably and objectively represent the interests and needs of the people of the communities.

Condition 11. Special orientation is provided for planning committee members.

Condition 12. Provisions are made for committee members to study in detail specific program areas.

Condition 13. Applicable scientific and social facts are analyzed, understood, and used by committee members in problem identification.

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*For discussion purposes, Gale L. VandeBerg, University of Wisconsin.

Condition 14. Available human and material resources for carrying out the program are considered in the planning process.

Condition 15. A written plan is developed which includes problems on a priority basis and long-time objectives.

Condition 16. The written plan is made known to professional and local leaders in the county.

APPLIED PRINCIPLES IN THE PROCESS OF DEVELOPING THE OVER-ALL COUNTY EXTENSION PROGRAM PLAN

1. Coordination and efficiency of the staff efforts in program planning are enhanced when they have common insight into the process and common agreement on the objectives, planning procedures, and individual responsibilities for program planning.

2. County program planning efforts are enhanced when the representatives of the county extension sponsoring agency understand and approve the process and its purposes, and are involved in it from the beginning.

3. The effectiveness of the program planning committee is enhanced when favorable attitudes toward the committee's activities are present among members of existing extension planning groups and county representatives of related agencies, and their knowledge and suggestions are involved in the planning process.

4. The acceptance and the effectiveness of the efforts of the planning committee are enhanced when, in the planning process, there is intensive involvement of local people who can represent the people of the county, along with the county staff and selected resource people.

5. The quality and quantity of the contributions from program planning committee members increases when they are provided with special orientation and the opportunity to delve deeply into specific program areas.

6. The effectiveness of the planning committee in developing an appropriate program plan is enhanced when needs and interests of the people are identified, applicable scientific, social and cultural facts are involved, and the available resources are considered.

7. The effectiveness of the efforts of planning committees is enhanced when the efforts result in a written program plan which groups problems on a priority basis, includes long-time objectives, and when the plan is made known to the professional and lay-leaders and is used by the staff as a basis for developing annual plans of work.

8. The efficiency and effectiveness of the planning process are enhanced when there is a systematic over-all design for committee structure and functioning and pre-planning by staff for each step in the procedure.

Notes:

-This plan assumes involvement by clientele.
-It includes program supports, staff development, training, resources, legitimation.
-It accepts people who represent a group rather than those who are representative of a group.
-The model asks for decision-making machinery to go beyond the special interests of constituent members.
-The model is based upon empirical research studies and is still in need of further refinement and study.

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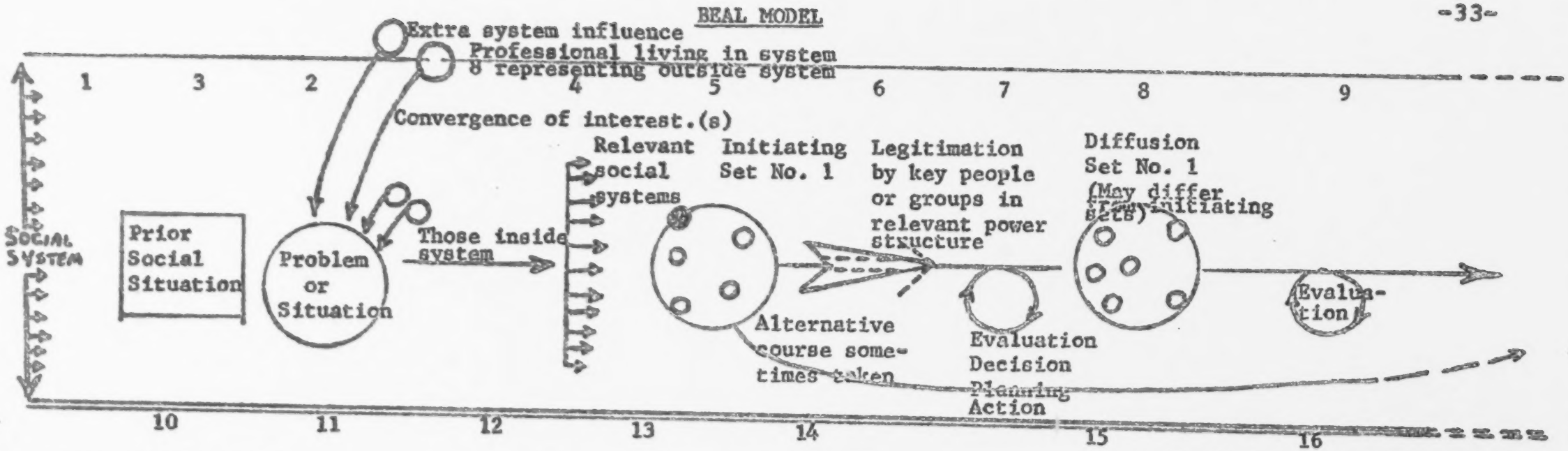
BEAL MODEL

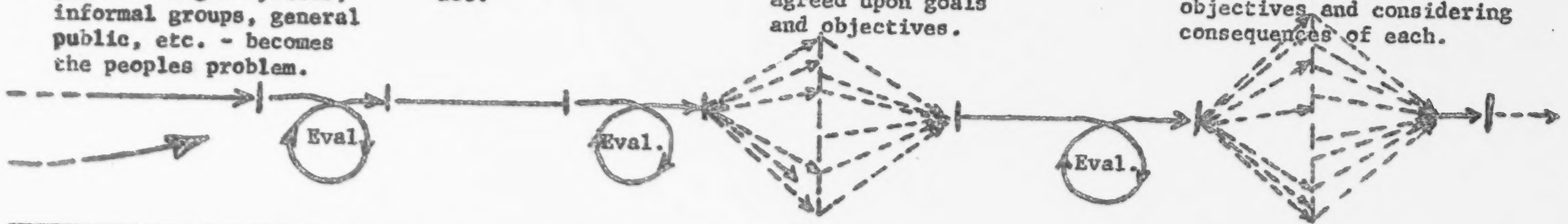


Definition of need by relevant more general target systems, informal groups, general public, etc. - becomes the peoples problem.

People are willing to act.

Setting up more formal generally agreed upon goals and objectives.

Exploring more formally alternative methods of means for reaching objectives and considering consequences of each.



Set up program and plan of work, timing, and org. structure

Mobilizing and organizing resources

Launching program

Carrying program forward --- bearing the burden of the program in time terms of time, expenses, skills, work, etc.

Total program evaluation

Next step action

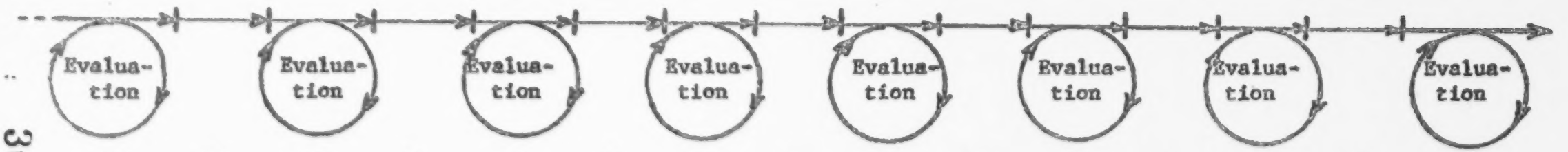
Action step 1

Action step 2

Action step 3

Action step 4

Action step ...n



BEAL MODEL

This theory is based on one developed by rural sociologists. Its popularity lies in its effectiveness of producing change. It is applicable to group settings and may be considered a method of changing "systems." It starts with a particular setting within a social system. "Problems" could be recognized from within the system by those who are a part of it and from without by those people who are not a part of the system.

Some Steps:

A. Identifying. Problems are operated upon so that they become apparent to those within the system; the non-affected (power structure, etc.) may be sought for legitimation. An attempt is made to identify those social systems which are affected or concerned.

B. Initiation Sets. Limited action is initiated but no real commitment is made at this time. Public opinion is being tested. These steps are affected by formal and informal influences and other structures. Evaluation goes on at each step bringing about more decisions, planning, and action.

C. Diffusion Sets. Contact is established with larger social systems as a sounding board. Plans are tested and refined in the light of feedback and response.

D. Definition of Need. Recognition is sought from the public by way of mass media, face-to-face confrontations, surveys, basic education, tours and so forth. Crisis

situations are capitalized upon and complaints and gripes are channeled into those "areas" where they get the most action.

E. Commitment. This is secured from the clientele, target group, public, etc. The medium of change could become a target of change.

F. Objectives

G. Methods

H. Plans

I. Mobilize and Organize Results

J. Evaluation

Notes:

-Program planners may or may not be part of the system.

-Power structure has formal and informal aspects; they are good legitimizers.

-Could be used for top-down programming (state to county, county to local, etc.)

-Commitment for problem or solution is necessary.

-The model utilizes a group dynamics dimension.

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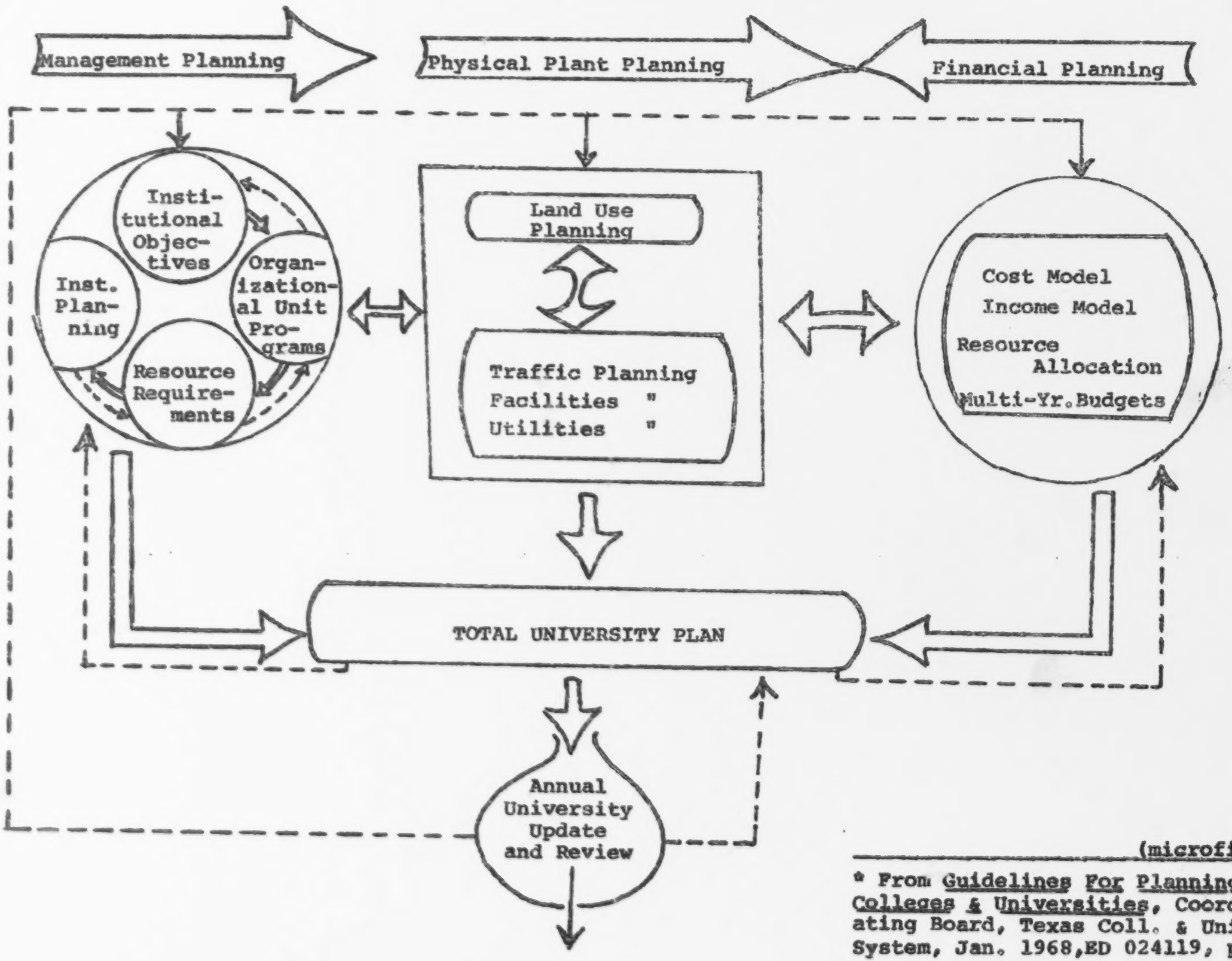
COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PLANNING MODEL*



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* From Guidelines For Planning In Colleges & Universities, Coordinating Board, Texas Coll. & Univ. System, Jan. 1968, ED 024119, p.8.

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PLANNING MODEL

The planning process for an educational institution is comprised of an extensive system of interrelated and interdependent efforts. The total planning effort can logically be divided into three major phases:

(1) Management and Program Planning

(2) Physical Plant Planning

(3) Financial Planning

Successful planning systems contain all three and merge them into a single product.

The management and program planning phase must be the initial effort in the planning process as the results from this phase are essential to the other phases. A weak link in the institutional planning procedures has been the failure to identify the basic objectives of an institution and to develop the entire planning around the attainment of these desired objectives. This basic process is called "management by objective." These objectives must specifically define the desired attainments of a given university. Clear channels of communication must be established for conveying the objectives and for assigning the appropriate functional responsibilities for objective accomplishment at all levels of the university.

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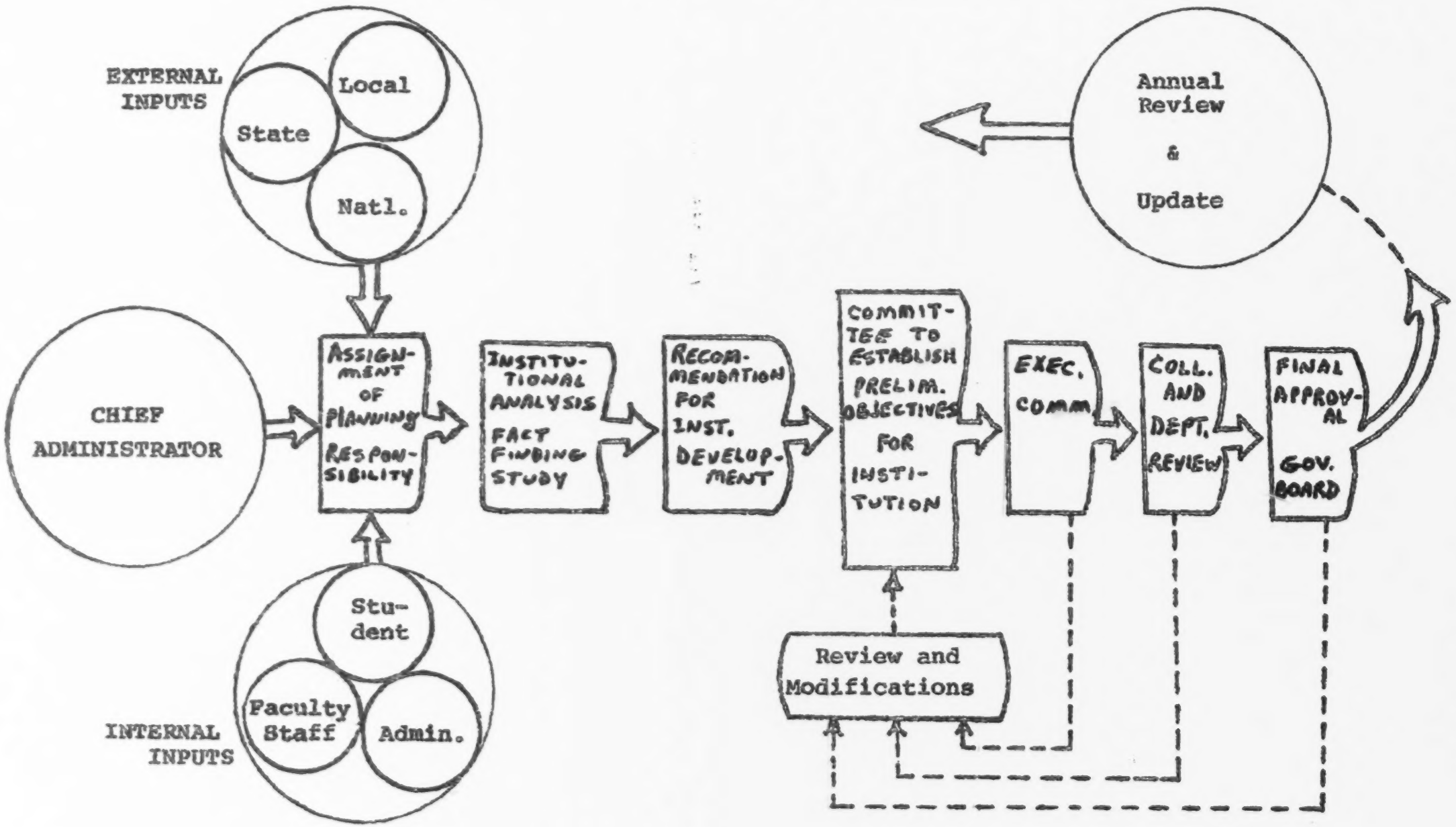
INSTITUTIONAL OBJECTIVES: FORMULATION PROCESS MODEL *



* From Guidelines For Planning In Colleges & Universities, Jan.1968, ERIC, ED 024119, p. 23.

INSTITUTIONAL OBJECTIVES: FORMULATION PROCESS MODEL

Defining objectives is a delicate matter. Faculty, staff, students, administration, and information sources external to the university can and should be utilized to develop data and information pertinent to the definition of objectives, but the final specific objectives must be established and approved by the administration of an institution and there must be a strong coordinated commitment to the attainment of these objectives.

University objectives answer,"Who am I?", and "Where do I go?" They also must ask, "What programs are necessary?" and "What are the program requirements?" The basic programs of a university are teaching, research, and public service and/or extension. The objectives of these programs must be converted to a "plan for accomplishment" which in turn should generate the requirements for objective attainment. Requirements in terms of staff, resources, facilities, funds, must be included in these plans. Planning reports would have to come from all basic organizational levels as well as general levels that relate to program implementation (academic departments, research institutes, etc.) and program support (registrar, library, administrative offices).

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ALINSKY MODEL*

Saul Alinsky is a professional organizer who seeks change by means of power-organization. His plan allows for groups of people to organize and fight for their own interests from their own power base. His own organization (Industrial Areas Foundation) is a select group that charges fees to organize community-power. Three rules underly this model: (1) Controversy; (2) Realism, and (3) Organization.

1. Controversy. The laws of physical mechanics apply to social mechanics, i.e., change--motion--friction--heat. There is no conflict in agreement. People have legitimate rights and may find that violence is sometimes the only way to get or preserve them. People learn out of action--not rhetoric. It is necessary to constantly create conflict and issues as a means of confrontation. An issue is thus something you can do something about; otherwise you are merely a victim--a learner. Issues must polarize for action to occur--there is no in-between. Peace and love only produce dialogue.
2. Realism. People detest arrogance and hypocrisy and will fight for participation through representation. Problems are best understood and attacked in their real-life setting.
3. Organization. Communications are fundamental and must be conveyed within the experience of the people. An

organization must have one spokesman and a specific question or issue around which confrontation is built. Once an organization is formed, its primary aim is to increase its area of participation. At this stage, the "attack" is initiated. It is in the counter-attack that the action really starts. The attitude of the group must be such that controversy is not feared nor is the thought of offending people.

The organizer's first job is to break through the rationalization of the "community". People always justify or rationalize what they do (some call it principle). An organizer should not expect to get a program from the people.

Notes:

Alinsky's model deserves careful attention for a number of factors it demonstrates:

1. Social action and community organization can be accomplished in low-income communities. (The poor, apparently, are not as apathetic as they are said to be when given appropriate alternatives to be un-apathetic about).
2. Social action can be quite inexpensive and does not require a huge outlay of government funds.
3. Representatives of all religions and classes can be united in community action groups.

4. Social action organizations can withstand witch hunt tactics.
5. It is relatively easy to find indigenous leadership in poor communities.

In general:

-Certain values are "top" and cannot be compromised (a "democratic" vote for segregation should be wrong).

-All revolutions are middle-class initiated; you do not have to belong to a "community" to reform it.

-All people tend to think that they are leaders (ego projection).

-A leader is a guy who has a following.

-Every organization is built on a multi-issue basis.

-"All I stand for is real democracy and that means popular participation and militant organization" . . . Alinsky

-Ideology: "When you have one, you suffer from the delusion that you know all the answers. I certainly don't." . . . Alinsky

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*For limitations and a critique of the Alinsky Model, see Frank Riessman's "Self-Help Among the Poor: New Styles of Social Action" in Trans-Action, September/October, 1969, pp. 32-37.

Also in the same issue is a brief exchange between Riessman and Alinsky which is worth reading. Another good reference on the Alinsky method is an article by Patrick Anderson which appeared in The New York Times, October 9, 1966. Perhaps the best source which reveals Alinsky is Alinsky himself. To this end the Film Board of Canada has produced five films with Alinsky. Among them are Challenge for Change, Organizing Power: The Alinsky Approach, and Building An Organization. They are available from Contemporary Films, Text Film Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, P.O. Box 590, Hightstown, N.J. 08520.

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